
Logistics Management Institute

The Effect of Manpower
and Personnel Systems
on Professional Development

AQ503MR1

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19980126 104

August 1996

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LOGISTICS MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

The Effect of Manpower and Personnel Systems on Professional Development

AQ503MR1/AUGUST 1996

Executive Summary

Two closely related objectives of the Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act are to improve the education and professional development of the defense acquisition workforce and to expand opportunities for defense civilian acquisition professionals to serve in leadership positions.

Education and training is critical to even entry-level positions in the technically demanding Department of Defense acquisition system. As individuals assume senior jobs they require more advanced and more comprehensive technical education and often need instruction in managerial or supervisory disciplines. Complete professional development for the highest-ranking positions depends on augmenting formal education with a series of diverse assignments.

Evolving programs for continuing professional development offered to civilian acquisition professionals are not as effective as the ones given for military officers, however. The manpower and personnel systems used to manage civilians do not include the essential features of the military system that support rotation through a sequence of developmental assignments and formal schools. The essential features of a flourishing system are central control of authorized positions and people, mandatory mobility, and a method to account for people who are not available to perform jobs in the force structure.

Changing the civilian manpower and personnel system to some extent to include the essential features of the officer management system would enhance the professional development for civilians. However, significant cultural and management problems stand in the way of making the needed system changes. Among the most prominent concerns are

- ◆ resources, staff, and authority needed to implement central control of civilian authorizations and personnel;
- ◆ loss of civilian appointment authority by local managers;
- ◆ need for "rank-in-person" classification for civilians;

-
- ◆ procedure for selecting civilians for formal schools; and
 - ◆ procedure for controlling civilians rotating among different Components.

We outline a plan for the next phase of the study to improve professional development opportunities for civilian acquisition professionals. The plan considers the implications of changing fundamental procedures of civilian manpower and personnel management and incorporates the results of related studies sponsored by the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition and Technology.

The major steps needed to improve the civilian professional development system are as follows:

- ◆ Determine the attributes needed by civilian acquisition professionals.
- ◆ Identify alternative ways to develop those attributes.
- ◆ Identify specific changes in the civilian management system needed to implement the alternative approaches.
- ◆ Determine the acquisition positions that require the attributes.
- ◆ Identify measures to motivate individuals and organizations to participate in and support the professional development program.

This proposed plan will be coordinated with a personnel demonstration program for the civilian acquisition workforce that is authorized by Public Law 104-406.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

PURPOSE

This is an interim report about the manpower and personnel systems used to manage military officers and Department of Defense civilians. It compares how the two different approaches support the education and professional development objectives of the Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act (DAWIA).

This documents the first phase of an ongoing study to improve the program for continuing professional development of acquisition professionals in DoD. In subsequent reports, we will build on this work. The ultimate goal is to present formal proposals for enhancing the continuing professional development program and to recommend a comprehensive plan to implement them.

THE CONCERN

Two of the objectives of DAWIA are to improve education and professional development of the acquisition workforce and to expand opportunities for civilian acquisition professionals to serve in leadership positions. The objectives are closely related. Education is necessary to be competent in the most junior positions of the technically demanding career fields in the DoD acquisition system. Senior jobs require more advanced or more comprehensive technical education and may need instruction in managerial or supervisory related disciplines such as communications, planning, controlling, business, finance, and leadership. For complete leader development, it is usually necessary to augment formal education and training with a series of diverse assignment experiences.

To meet the DAWIA education objective DoD established minimum education and experience standards for entry into the Acquisition Corps, and for certification at the different levels in each of the acquisition career fields. Mandatory requirements are technically oriented and can usually be satisfied relatively early in an individual's career.

To prepare individuals to assume leadership and management positions in the acquisition system and to support professional technical growth, DoD is instituting a program of continuing professional development for military and civilian members of the acquisition workforce. That program consists of formal education (sometimes in a full-time, long-term status), training, and a series of assignments

needed for growth beyond mandatory requirements of the three certification levels.

Officials in the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) are concerned that the evolving program for continuing professional development will not be as effective for civilian acquisition professionals as for military officers. They believe civilians face obstacles to professional development because of the way they are managed within the current manpower and personnel systems. The obstacles in the civilian systems result from the traditional views of how civilian personnel function within DoD as compared to the way military officers perform.

Military officers are needed to participate in, or directly support, combat, peacekeeping, relief, and other operations. Their role is viewed as "operational" or "direct operational support." To develop the knowledge, skills, and attributes necessary to fulfill that role, officers are given experience in a wide range of job responsibilities in a variety of environments. As part of personnel policy, military officers are mobile and rotate through a series of job assignments that are integrated, with regularly scheduled formal schooling.

Civilians help execute military operations in an equally important but different way. They provide the continuity within DoD organizations. Traditionally, civilian leaders are responsible for organizations that are part of the infrastructure. Those organizations provide critical and more stable, continuous, long-term support for DoD functions. The previous assumption has been that performing such jobs does not require civilians to experience the assignments and professional education typical of military officer development.

One result of the traditional view of the civilian role is that manpower and personnel management systems that have evolved are not conducive to supporting attendance at full-time, long-term schools. To attend formal schools, civilian employees are released from their positions for the duration of the course. However, the employee's status upon graduation is often unknown, both to the individual and the organization. Civilian personnel systems rarely assume any specific responsibility for placing graduates upon completion of formal instruction. Typically, individuals must find their own new appointments or return to their current job. Also, no universal method exists for regular rotation of assignments for civilians, so there is no guarantee that a position commensurate with the education just completed will be available. The uncertainty prevents the organization from determining if a temporary or permanent replacement is appropriate and is unsettling to the individual.

THE NEED FOR CHANGE

In the past, traditional manpower and personnel systems for civilians have served DoD well. Members of the DoD civilian workforce have been able to grow professionally in concert with the requirements of their positions. This development

has taken place even though civilians are generally less mobile than their military counterparts and do not rotate assignments on a regular basis. However, DAWIA contains specific personnel management provisions that call for change in the present system if continuing professional development is to be effective for civilian acquisition professionals.

DAWIA places increased emphasis on developing civilian acquisition professionals into leaders in the DoD acquisition system. The Secretary of Defense is expected to

ensure that appropriate career paths for civilian and military personnel who wish to pursue careers in acquisition are identified in terms of education, training, experience, and assignments necessary for career progression of civilians and members of the armed forces to the most senior acquisition positions.¹

Furthermore,

[t]he Secretary of Defense shall ensure that the acquisition workforce is managed such that, for each fiscal year from October 1, 1991, through September 30, 1996, there is a substantial increase in the proportion of civilians (as compared to armed forces personnel) serving in critical acquisition positions in general, in program manager positions, and in division head positions over the proportion of civilians (as compared to armed forces personnel) in such positions on October 1, 1990.²

Other provisions dictate that civilian acquisition professionals be managed within a system that features regular rotation of assignments. For example, DAWIA requires that policies be established to encourage

rotation of members of an Acquisition Corps serving in critical acquisition positions to new assignments after completion of five years of service in such positions, or, in the case of a program manager, after completion of a major program milestone, whichever is longer. Such rotation policy shall be designed to ensure opportunities for career broadening assignments and an infusion of new ideas into critical acquisition positions.³

DoD also must

establish a procedure under which the assignment of each person assigned to a critical acquisition position shall be reviewed on a case-by-case basis, by the acquisition career program board of the department concerned, for the

¹Section 1722 (a), Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

²Section 1722 (e), Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

³Section 1734 (d) (1), Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

purpose of determining whether the Government and such person would be better served by a reassignment to a different position.⁴

Finally,

the Secretary of Defense shall prescribe regulations providing for the use of centralized lists to ensure that persons are selected for critical positions without regard to geographic location of applicants for such positions.⁵

DAWIA also stresses recruitment of civilians for the workforce. Each Military Department is expected to

conduct an intern program for purposes of providing highly qualified and talented individuals an opportunity for accelerated promotions, career broadening assignments, and specified training to prepare them for entry into the Acquisition Corps.⁶

Once recruited, those interns and other members of the acquisition workforce benefit from DAWIA provisions that call for cooperative education, scholarship, and exchange programs that promote continuing education and career-broadening experiences.⁷

SCOPE

The features of manpower and personnel management systems that support continuing professional development for military officers and hinder that development for civilians are not unique to the acquisition career field. For example, military officers serving in an Army infantry branch, the Navy surface warfare community, or the Air Force personnel field attend long-term, full-time schools. They report to appropriate assignments upon graduation as readily as acquisition officers. Similarly, civilian employees in transportation, force planning, and other fields face the same obstacles as their acquisition workforce counterparts in pursuing continuing professional development.

The acquisition career field is not comprised exclusively of individuals who enter the discipline at the beginning of a career. It is open to lateral entry. Military officers often transfer into the acquisition field after completing one or more tours in another specialty. The transfer may be motivated by a formal Military Service procedure,⁸ the needs of the Service, or changing individual career goals. Like

⁴Section 1734 (e) (2), Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

⁵Section 1734 (f), Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

⁶Section 1742, Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

⁷Section 1734 (g) (1), Section 1743, and Section 1744, Chapter 87, 10 U.S.C.

⁸The Army plan for acquisition officers requires individuals to first serve in a "basic branch" such as armor, signal, or quartermaster branch. After approximately eight years of service in the basic branch, Army officers are selected for the Acquisition Corps by a formal board.

military officers, civilians can become part of the acquisition workforce because they change career fields. Civilians can also continue in the same career field, but enter the acquisition workforce because a new appointment is to an acquisition position (an auditor moving from a nonacquisition to an acquisition organization, for example).

Because of the conditions discussed in the preceding paragraphs, our analysis first considers military and civilian manpower and personnel systems in general. After we describe the characteristics that apply to all military and civilian manpower and personnel systems, we illustrate the environment with examples from the acquisition area.

ORGANIZATION OF THIS REPORT

Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 contrast manpower and personnel systems for military officers and civilians. Particular features that support or hinder continuing professional development are identified in those chapters.

In Chapter 4, we provide data illustrating how the different manpower and personnel systems have affected continuing professional development for military officers and DoD civilians.

Chapter 5 discusses the issues to be considered if the existing civilian manpower and personnel systems are to be altered to better support continuing professional development.

Chapter 2

Military Manpower and Personnel Management

GENERAL

This chapter first explains how manpower planning for military officers is accomplished. We then show how personnel systems function to meet manpower requirements and place the right number of people, with the proper skills, in the right place, at the right time.

Military personnel systems do more than satisfy manpower requirements. They also provide definite guidelines for career progression. That emphasis on concurrently meeting manpower and career development requirements is manifested in certain features of the manpower and personnel management systems used for military officers. We discuss how those features impact continuing professional development.

Finally, we illustrate how manpower and personnel management for officers is implemented in the Military Services. Schematic representations that show the key events in a typical career, to include continuing professional development, are presented for each Service. All the examples are taken from the acquisition career field, since that is the area of interest in this report.

MANPOWER MANAGEMENT

Military manpower requirements result from of complex processes that balance the needs of the force against resource constraints.

Five major determinants affect defense manpower requirements and the number of officers—by Service, grade, and skill—that are required in the force: national military strategy, organizational design and structures, doctrine and operational concepts, technology, force size and of Active Duty and Reserve Component forces.¹ The combined interaction of the determinants shapes the national defense objectives.

Those objectives are translated into DoD guidance and policy. In order to comply with DoD guidance and achieve their internal goals for officer career patterns, the Services have instituted manpower requirements systems.

¹Rand Corporation, *Future Career Management Systems for U.S. Military Officers*, Harry Thie, MR-470-OSD, 1994, p. xix.

Manpower Requirements Systems

Service manpower requirements systems are part of a broader function often called force development. Force development can be viewed as a four-step process. The first three steps—requirements generation, design of unit models, and determination of force mix—lead to manpower requirements actions, the fourth step.

FORCE DEVELOPMENT—PRELIMINARY STEPS

Force development starts with requirements generation. Planners analyze the envisioned battle environment (on the basis of DoD guidance) to determine what doctrine, training, leader development programs, organizational structure, material, weapons, and support equipment are needed to perform the mission. The Services determine how to accomplish a mission and what preparations are needed to do so.

The requirements-generation step leads to the design of unit models. Unit models are “templates of people” (by type, skill, grade, and number) and equipment organized to perform a function. Unit models can result from creation of new organizations and modification of existing ones. The unit models are building blocks used to construct the forces of the Military Services.

Once unit models have been developed, planners determine the “mix” that constitutes a viable, balanced, yet affordable structure. War plans and budget considerations guide the allocation of units to either the Active Duty or Reserve Components. This force structuring activity is an integral part of the overall OSD Planning, Programming, and Budgeting System and the Joint Staff Joint Strategic Planning System. It is a resource-sensitive process.

MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS PLANNING

Manpower requirements actions begin with the fourth step of force development. The process is often called documentation of unit authorizations. Conceptually, documentation is the integration of the products of the first three force development steps.

During documentation, the authorizations for each unit and organization are finalized and include a level of total fill. Units know the percentage of the total personnel and equipment they can expect to have available for peacetime operations and the augmentation planned during war. The level-of-fill decisions are based on the priorities set by top Service leaders, individual command plans, and budgets. Those final authorization documents serve as the basis for requisitioning personnel and equipment.

Summary

The product of the manpower management system for military personnel is authorizations. Authorizations, constrained to meet the budget, provide a statement of the number of military personnel by grade, skill, and experience needed to accomplish an organization's mission. The authorization documents serve as the basis for requesting personnel (as well as equipment) and are the starting point for personnel systems.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Personnel management systems for military personnel are designed to ensure that the required number of people with the necessary skills are available to lead the present and future armed forces. The systems also provide frameworks to guide the careers of military personnel.

Service personnel management systems consist of three interrelated subsystems: strength management, professional development, and evaluation. Centralized selection processes integrate the three subsystems. In the following subsections, we explain how the systems work for military officers.

Strength Management

Congress sets a limit on the total number of officers that can be on active duty in any Service for any given year. Service managers maintain that total number by balancing gains and losses to the officer system. The number of field grade officers (grades O-4 through O-6) is also limited by the Defense Officer Personnel Management Act. To comply with the field grade restrictions, the Services control the dates on which officers are promoted to those grades.

Personnel planners determine the number of new officers to be commissioned in each year on the basis of the programmed future size of the officer force and estimates of attrition. Under ideal conditions, the losses that occur through normal separations and retirements enable the desired number of new officers to join the Service. If losses do not support accession goals, management actions are required.

The most common strength management tool is a "forced loss" action.² When necessary, the personnel managers may identify for separation junior officers whose past performance does not warrant continued service. That action usually takes place when individuals are considered for promotion to the grade of O-3.

² It is usually undesirable to meet total strength limitations solely by adjusting the size of entering year groups. Undersized year groups may not satisfy future Service experience needs. Oversized year groups may hinder professional development goals.

Selective early retirement processes are used for more senior officers who are eligible for retirement, continue to perform well, but lack potential for greater responsibility. When severe reductions are required, the Military Services may implement reductions in force (RIFs), or offer incentives for voluntary early separation. RIFs were necessary following the Vietnam Conflict. Early retirements, RIFs, and incentives are all used to encourage early separation as part of the current military force reduction.

Professional Development

Professional development subsystems use the output of the strength subsystems to ensure not only that the required number of officers is available, but that they also have the necessary skills and experience.

For management purposes the Services combine duty positions with mutually supporting skill, knowledge, and experience requirements into groups. The groupings have various titles, such as "career field" or "community," depending on the Service. Personnel managers then coordinate with strength planners to establish the number of officers allocated to each group from the Service total.

Each career field or community is then designed to simultaneously meet Service strength requirements and to contain sufficient duty positions to support progression to the grade of O-6. Positions are identified and sequenced so officers can develop technical and managerial qualifications needed for career progression. Educational opportunities in both military and civilian schools are also incorporated into the career plans.

Evaluation

All military officers do not possess the same capabilities and potential. Officer evaluation subsystems are the means for identifying those individuals most qualified for advancement and assignment to positions of increased responsibility.

Evaluation systems include assessments of officer performance and potential in both the organizational duty and the academic environments. Assessments are made by supervisors from the organizational chain. The evaluating (or "rating") supervisors use a standard form to perform the assessment. The standard forms require information that is correlated with the Services' needs and the individual qualifications to provide the basis for personnel actions such as promotion, retention in grade, school selection, assignment, and command designation.

Central Selection

The outputs of the strength management, professional development, and evaluation subsystems are brought together in Service central selection processes.

For management purposes, the Military Services (except for the Navy) identify each officer with a "year group." Year groups correspond to the month and year of commissioning.³ Officers are considered for important career events (e.g., promotions, selection for schools, and selection for command) according to a typical schedule for year-group management.

With the exception of individual reassignments, virtually all Service-level decisions on an officer's career are made by a board convened at the Service headquarters. Boards of officers are used for promotion,⁴ school selection, and command designation. The selection boards receive guidance from the Service Secretary and the Service Chief. The guidance is issued to ensure that both the professional development needs of the individual officers and the requirements of the Service are satisfied. Procedures, codified in law and regulation, govern the content and format of the guidance.

Officer assignments are also made centrally. However, except for senior command designation, a staff manages assignments.

FEATURES OF MILITARY MANPOWER AND PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Certain features of the manpower and personnel systems used to manage military officers support continuing professional development.

Central Management

The ultimate authority for virtually all personnel management actions rests with the Military Service headquarters.

Each Service maintains a large staff of personnel managers and specialists to guide officers' careers in a manner that best meets the needs of the Military Department and the individual. Assignments, attendance at schools, and geographic relocation are carefully controlled and monitored. The personnel system is designed to perform the career management and job placement functions in support of the manpower program.

³The Navy considers date of commissioning to manage officers. However, it incorporates that date into 'linear' order of merit lists, so that the group of officers considered for a given personnel action may not all be from the same year.

⁴Promotion to O-2 is not based on a board action.

Rank Associated with the Individual

Military officers are awarded rank based on personal qualifications and experience. This practice is commonly referred to as “rank in person.” The position they occupy is usually compatible with their rank.

Theoretically, any officer of appropriate rank and specialty can occupy any position of matching grade and specialty. In reality, other factors affect assignment decisions and compound the problem of matching individuals to jobs. But the fact that rank is associated with the individual means that there is great flexibility in assigning military officers to new jobs.

Mandatory Mobility

All military officers are subject to geographic relocation to meet the needs of their Service. Mandatory mobility is an understood and accepted part of a career. Organizations know that officers will typically serve in a position or location for three to four years, or less. However, the organizations can also expect a replacement upon an incumbent’s reassignment.

Moneys for permanent change of station moves come from centrally managed Service funds. Commands, activities, and organizations incur no financial burden from the regular change of duty of officers.

The regular rotation through appropriate duty positions supports professional development. An organization’s operations suffer only minor disruption when an officer departs for a long-term, full-time school. A replacement will assume the position at the time of, or soon after, the officer’s departure. Upon completion of the course, the departing officer can reasonably anticipate moving to another appropriate job. In fact, for military officers, long-term, full-time schooling is a sought-after reward for successful performance.

Individuals Account

The programming and accounting system for active military manpower makes a distinction between two types of personnel: those whose availability for duty is controlled by a local commander and non-unit personnel. Personnel in the latter category are treated separately because they are not under the control of unit commanders and do not fill unit billets.

An account called “Individuals” is used to identify nonunit personnel in the programming and accounting system. The size of the Individuals account varies among the Services. It is approximately 10 to 13 percent of the total strength. The size of the account is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

The Individuals account is divided into four major subaccounts:

- ◆ *Transients*: Military members not available for duty while relocating from one duty station to another.
- ◆ *Trainees/Students*: Military members not available for duty while attending formal courses of instruction in a permanent change of station move or in a temporary duty status while executing a permanent change of station move.

Trainees generally include those members who have not yet completed initial entry training, while students include those members taking courses after initial entry training.

- ◆ *Holdees*: Military members dropped from the assigned strength of a force structure unit and attached to a “holding” activity because of unavailability as a result of medical, disciplinary, or pre-separation status.
- ◆ *Cadets/midshipmen*: Student members of the Military Service Academies.

The Military Services recognize that there is a “personnel cost” associated with professional development. The Individuals account is that cost. The Trainees/Students subaccount supports the practice of sending military officers to long-term training without encumbering a position in a unit or organization. Similarly, the Transients subaccount enables officers to move, on a regular schedule, from one assignment to another. During the transient time, positions are not left vacant.

IMPLEMENTATION OF MANPOWER AND PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

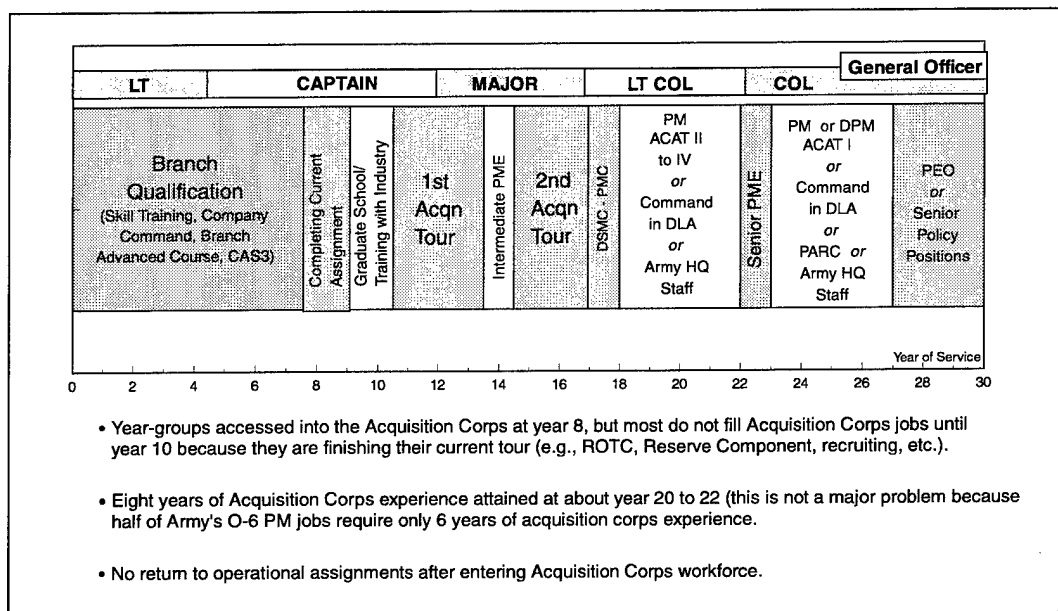
Each Military Service has implemented its manpower and personnel management with a career development philosophy that reflects the Service’s unique mission, training and education requirements, technical and professional experience, diversity of skills, need for Professional Military Education (PME), and Service traditions. These philosophies have resulted in different career path “templates” for each Service and, in some cases, for the different communities within a Service (e.g., Navy Surface Warfare Officers and Navy Supply Corps Officers, Air Force pilots, and Air Force nonflying officers). The Services have, in some cases, modified the traditional career paths to comply with the provisions of DAWIA. In the following subsections, we summarize some prevalent acquisition career paths in each of the Services. Those summaries are excerpts from more detailed

discussions presented in LMI report, *Interaction of Military Acquisition Corps Officer and Joint Officer Management*.⁵

Acquisition Career Development in the Army

Figure 2-1 is a typical career path template for an Army acquisition officer. This specialized template represents a fundamental change from the Army's traditional officer career development pattern. In the Army's classic career development model, officers alternate operational assignments with their functional area of specialization throughout their career. In this way, they maintain operational currency into the senior grades.

Figure 2-1. Army Acquisition Officer Career Path Model



Notes: ACAT = Acquisition Category; CAS3 = Combined Arms and Services Staff School; DLA = Defense Logistics Agency; DSMC-PMC = Defense Systems Management College-Program Management Course; HQ = Headquarters; PARC = Program Advisory and Review Council; PEO = Program Executive Officer; PM = Program Manager; ROTC = Reserve Officer Training Corps.

Army officers enter the acquisition workforce through a competitive screening board. They subsequently become members of the Acquisition Corps when they meet DAWIA education and experience requirements. The screening board considers officers at the 8-year point by accession-year group. Primary rating factors are satisfaction of branch qualifications (completion of the Branch Advanced Course and of a successful Company Command tour) and past performance. Quotas are set by branch and functional area on the basis of anticipated future re-

⁵ Logistics Management Institute, *Interaction of Military Acquisition Corps Officer and Joint Officer Management*, Report AQ101MR1, Carl Jensen, Al Schroetel et al., April 1995.

quirements for acquisition officers with a given branch background. In past boards, the selection rate has been about 50 percent. This selectivity is designed to keep Acquisition Corps officers, as a group, competitive for future promotions. Additionally, the Army ensures that the DAWIA promotion goals are met by setting “floors” for each promotion board. Once Army officers enter the Acquisition Corps, they normally are not permitted to voluntarily terminate Corps membership.

Although selected for the acquisition workforce at about the 8-year point, Army officers usually do not begin their first acquisition assignment until the 9- to 10-year point because they have to complete their current tour of duty. From that point on, except for graduate school and PME, they serve only in acquisition jobs.

Acquisition Career Development in the Navy

The Navy refers to its Acquisition Corps as the Acquisition Professional Community (APC). Under the APC management system, acquisition officers retain their basic duty designator.⁶ This means that officers continue to compete for promotion in their primary designators. The Navy manages the APC at the grade of O-4 and above.

During DAWIA implementation, the Navy determined that Unrestricted Line Officers in the APC must bring operational experience to the acquisition process. As a result, those officers are expected to remain “operational” throughout their careers. In order to meet the DAWIA experience and training criteria, Navy assignment detailers try to assign some Unrestricted Line Officers to an acquisition tour even before they actually enter the APC. Once in the APC, the Navy manages Unrestricted Line Officer assignments to enable officers to meet acquisition experience requirements.

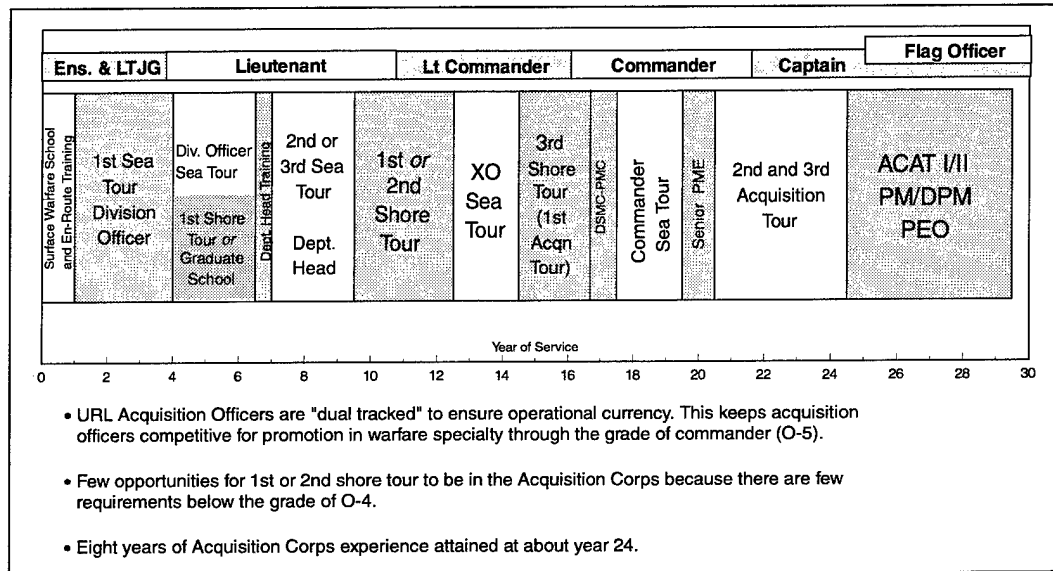
Officers volunteer for the APC and can leave the APC if they desire. Any officer in the grade of O-4 or higher can apply for board consideration. Additionally, O-4s and above assigned to an acquisition position are automatically considered. Thus, to a large degree, APC entry is assignment driven.

The Navy designates officers in the APC through an administrative selection board. The primary criteria for APC selection are the same as DAWIA education, training, and experience requirements. In addition to meeting DAWIA standards, Unrestricted Line Officers must have served successfully in an O-5 command billet or have passed or been approved for O-5 command.

⁶For example, 1120 is an Unrestricted Line Officer in submarine warfare and 1440 is an engineering Duty Officer—ship or ordnance. Those officers will also be given an Additional Qualification Designator (i.e., AQD) as an Acquisition Officer.

Acquisition Officer career paths are most diverse in the Navy. In Figure 2-2 we show the career path for an Unrestricted Line Surface Warfare Officer. Officers generally will have two or three operational tours (a Division Officer tour and a department head tour) before going on their first acquisition duty tour. Unlike the other Services, attendance at PME in residence at the intermediate and senior level is not a career development objective.

Figure 2-2. Navy Acquisition Officer Career Path Model: Unrestricted Line Surface Warfare Officer



Notes: ACAT = Acquisition Category; DPM = Deputy Program Manager; DSMC-PMC = Defense Systems Management College—Program Management Course; PEO = Program Executive Officer; PM = Program Manager; XO = Executive Officer.

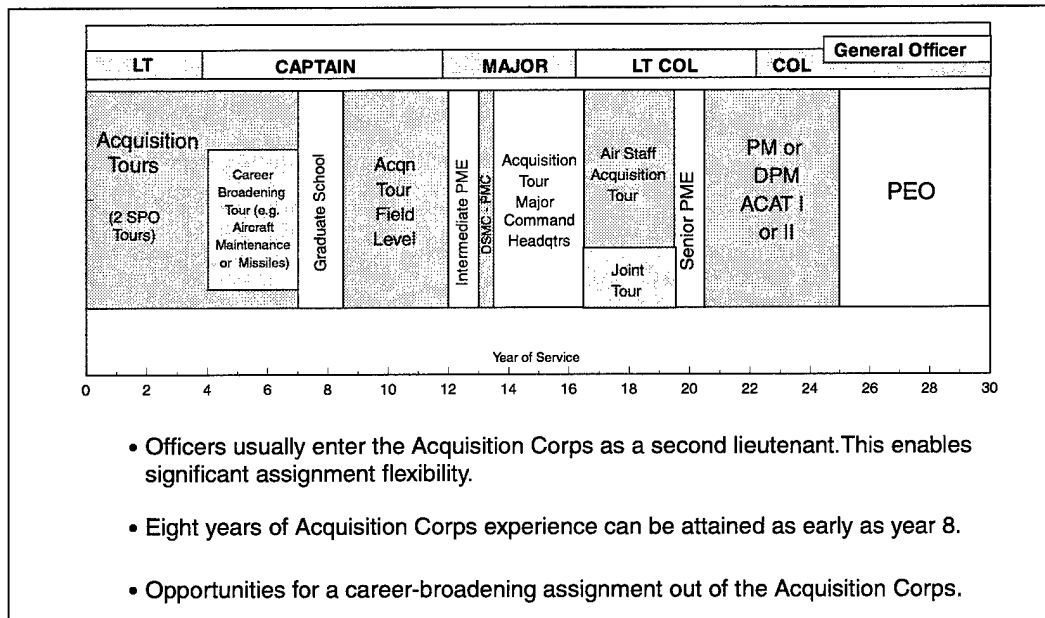
Acquisition Career Development in the Air Force

The Air Force does not have a quality screen for entry into the Acquisition Corps. Officers apply to the appropriate functional manager for their career field. Functional managers, at either the Air Force Material Command or Headquarters, U.S. Air Force, reviews applicants' records to determine if they meet DAWIA education and experience requirements. Majors (grade O-4) and above are eligible. Officers who meet the criteria may enter the Acquisition Corps. There is no review by a board of officers. Once officers are selected for the Corps, they always remain a member.

Nonrated officers (officers other than pilots and navigators) usually enter the acquisition workforce as Second Lieutenants (O-1s) and follow a specialist path as an acquisition officer from that time on. However, those officers are encouraged to seek career-broadening assignments. For example, acquisition officers might serve a tour in missile operations or aircraft maintenance. Air Force officers can

leave acquisition of their own volition. Figure 2-3 is the career path template for Air Force nonrated officers.

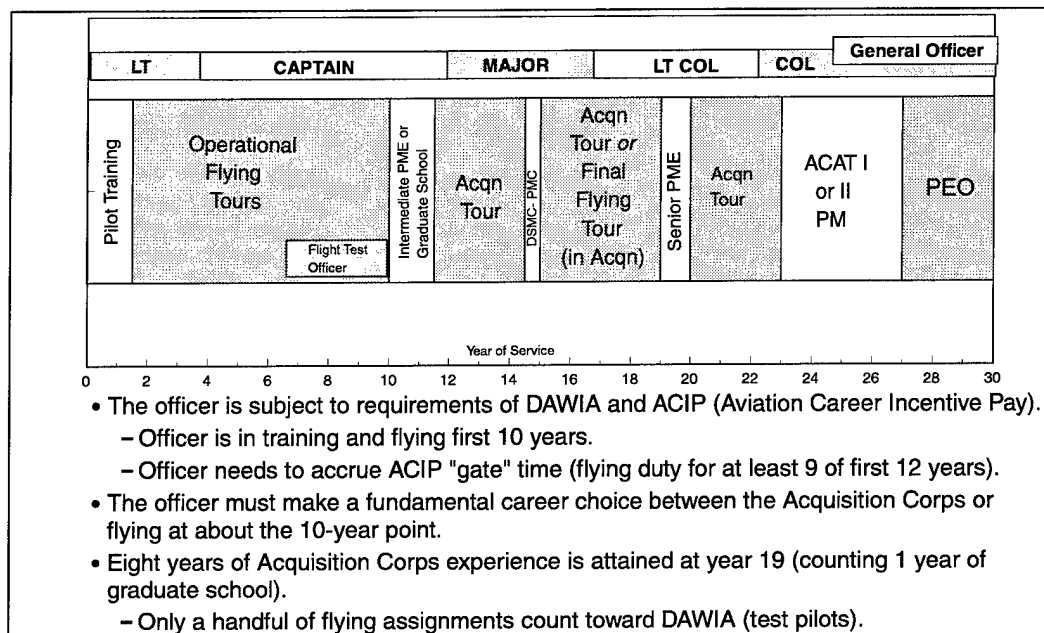
Figure 2-3. Air Force Acquisition Officer Career Path Model: Nonflying



Notes: ACAT = Acquisition Category; DPM = Deputy Program Manager; DSMC-PMC = Defense Systems Management College-Program Management Course; PEO = Program Executive Officer; PM = Program Manager; SPO = Service Program Office.

Rated officers (pilots and navigators) follow a much different career path. They normally do not enter the acquisition workforce until they have completed their mandatory flying assignments. This usually occurs at about the 10th year. A limited number of officers have the opportunity to satisfy both acquisition and flying requirements simultaneously by serving in experimental and test pilot or navigator assignments. Figure 2-4 is the career path template for Air Force rated officers.

Figure 2-4. Air Force Acquisition Officer Career Path Model: Pilot



Notes: ACAT = Acquisition Category; DSMC-PMC = Defense Systems Management College–Program Management Course; PEO = Program Executive Officer; PM = Program Manager.

Acquisition Career Development in the Marine Corps

The Marine Corps refers to its Acquisition Corps as the Acquisition Workforce Program and its officers as "Acquisition Professionals." They use three military occupational specialty (MOS) codes to identify acquisition officers (these can be primary or secondary specialties).⁷

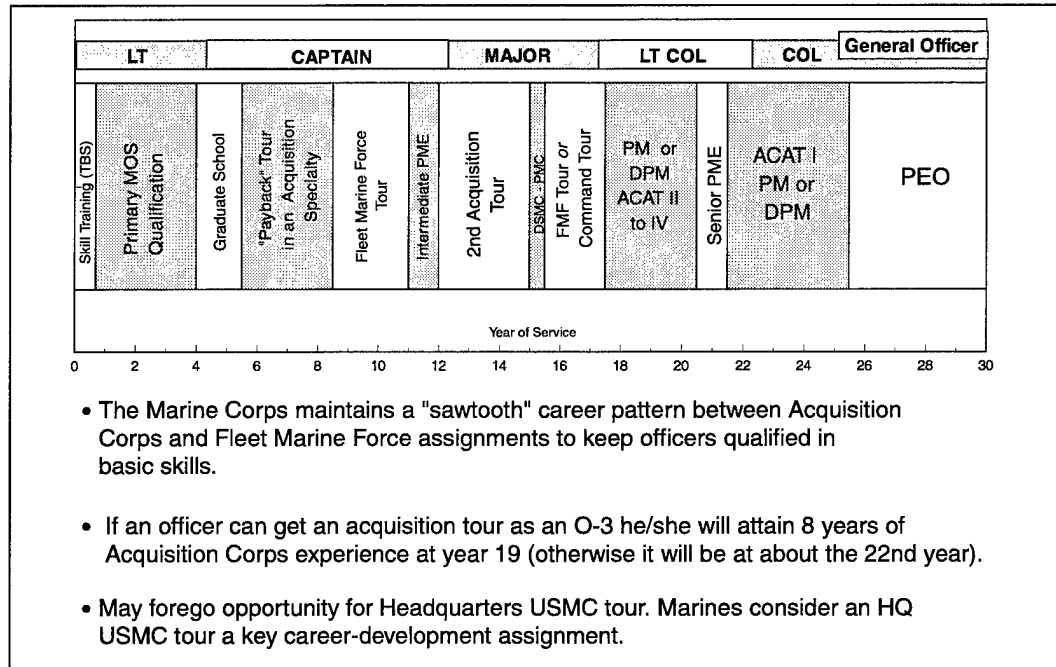
In the Marine Corps, membership in the Acquisition Corps is completely voluntary. Applicants are considered by an annual selection board that reviews education transcripts, training, job experience, and performance reports. Officers must be competitive for future promotions, although the Marine Corps does not establish promotion selection "floors" as the Army does. Normally, an officer must be a major-select or major to volunteer, but captains can be designated as "acquisition candidates." No experience or education criteria exist for captains to apply, but 2 years experience or related educational background is desired.

As shown in Figure 2-5, the primary career path "model" for the Marine Corps emphasizes Fleet Marine Force or operational assignments. As already noted, Marine Corps officers generally are major-selects or majors before they enter the Ac-

⁷MOS-9957, Acquisition Candidate (can begin at O-3 but O-4 is more common); MOS-9958, Acquisition Officer; and MOS-9959, Acquisition Manager (O-5 and above—program managers, program executive officers, etc.).

quisition Corps. After entering the Acquisition Corps, officers alternate acquisition assignments with Fleet Marine Force duty until about the 18th year of service.

Figure 2-5. Marine Corps Acquisition Officer Career Path Model



Notes: ACAT = Acquisition Category; DSMC-PMC = Defense Systems Management College-Program Management Course; PARC = Program Advisory and Review Council; PEO = Program Executive Officer; PM = Program Manager; PME = Professional Military Education.

SUMMARY

Much of the training and education offered to military officers is designed to prepare them to become leaders in positions of increasing responsibility. To accomplish this development, certain features have been incorporated into the Services' manpower and personnel management systems.

It is important to note, however, that although central management, mobility, and an individual's account make professional development of military officers relatively easy to accomplish, this development is not bestowed on officers as a right. Officers must perform satisfactorily to continue in the military. At the more senior levels, competition for schools and positions of responsibility is very keen.

Chapter 3

Civilian Manpower and Personnel Management

GENERAL

More than 90 percent of the civilians who work for the federal government are employed under merit systems. This means that any type of personnel action, such as hiring, promoting, firing, demoting, or selection for long-term, full-time training, must be based on the individual's ability and performance.

The Office of Personnel Management (OPM) is the central federal personnel agency. It develops policies governing civilian employment in the executive branch agencies and in certain agencies of the legislative and judicial branches of government.

Federal law and OPM delegate a lot of authority to agencies to design and operate personnel programs for their organizations. Heads of agencies develop and implement their own policies, rules, and regulations to fit their requirements within the bounds established by OPM. Agencies may, in turn, delegate authority to subagencies, such as bureaus, offices, or field installations.

MANPOWER MANAGEMENT

In contrast to officer systems, manpower management for DoD civilians is decentralized. It also is influenced much more by budget considerations and much less by actual mission requirements and career planning factors.

The present system for civilian manpower planning in DoD is shaped by two actions of the federal government. Executive Order 12839, *Reduction of 100,000 Federal Positions*, issued on 10 February 1993, states that

Each executive department or agency with over 100 employees shall eliminate not less than 4 percent of its civilian personnel positions (measured on a full-time equivalent [FTE] basis) over the next 3 fiscal years. . . . At least 10 percent of the reductions shall come from the Senior Executive Service, GS-15 and GS-14 levels or equivalent.¹

That order was augmented by the Federal Workforce Restructuring Act of 1994 (Public Law 103-226, 30 March 1994) that continued the overall reductions by

¹One FTE is equal to 2,080 hours. For nontechnical accounting, an FTE can be thought of as one staff-year.

setting declining limits on the total number of federal civilian employees for FY94 through FY99. The limits set by the Federal Workforce Restructuring Act of 1994 are also in units of FTEs.

On the basis of the total number of FTEs available for all federal departments, the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) assigns a portion of those FTEs to DoD. In order to comply with federal guidelines, maintain a balanced civilian workforce, and work within the spirit of the mandate of the National Performance Review to redesign the government, DoD has initiated a plan to limit the number of civilian positions above the GS-13 grade. The plan is often referred to as "high-grade limits." It calls for DoD organizations to make reductions in the high grades in the same proportion as the overall cuts. For example, if a directorate is to make a 10 percent overall reduction, at least 10 percent of the cuts are to be in high grades. The plan targets manpower plans through FY99 and is being coordinated with the Military Services and Defense Agencies.

Within DoD, the Requirements Directorate in the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness) incorporates the directions from the Administration, Congress, and OMB into force management guidance. That guidance states, in broad categories, the total FTEs that each Military Department and defense agency is to use for planning. Some examples of the broad categories are: proper (internal to the Service or agency), civilian military technicians, and support to joint organizations. Guidance includes planning figures for the current year, budget year, and 5 out-years.

Military Departments and Defense Agencies allocate their FTE totals to subordinate organizations according to goals and priorities established by the Service headquarters.

For civilians, manpower planning at the grade and skill level takes place at the local organizational level. Supervisors are responsible for designing position structures that provide for the most effective mix of skills and grade levels necessary to accomplish the assigned missions and functions. Local supervisors must also plan and budget for civilian training needed to complement mission performance. All costs associated with training and education, such as travel and per diem, must be justified in the budget plan.

The product of civilian manpower systems is a set of position requirements by grade and skill needed to accomplish the organizational mission. Grade and skill standards for the positions are developed at the local level. Training and education related to performing the mission are also budgeted.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

The Critical Difference Between Officer and Civilian Management

Military officers hold rank or grade as an individual (rank in person). They are considered for promotion at well-defined, regularly scheduled times. Their rank does not change because of a different assignment or duty position.

In the civilian merit system, individuals hold the rank or grade of the positions that they occupy (rank in position). No regular consideration is given for promotion based on time or quality of past service. A grade change requires appointment to a new position. Promotion and appointment are the same action. Furthermore, any appointment to a higher grade position must be open to competition with other qualified applicants.

Military Departments and Defense Agencies enjoy significant freedom in operating civilian personnel systems. That authority has been delegated by OPM subject to satisfying certain guidelines. The Military Departments have used the freedom to implement civilian career management programs.

Army Civilian Training and Educational Development Systems

The Army civilian “professional or career programs” workforce is divided into the group and the “other” occupations. Twenty-six career fields addressing some 96,000 positions, or 38 percent of the total Army civilian spaces, are included in the professional or career programs group.

Each of the career programs has a proponent or functional area head who is responsible for designing a career development plan. The plans are similar to the Air Force career paths. They include assignments, training, and education. The 26 career field plans make up the Army Civilian Training and Education System (ACTEDS). Department of the Army Pamphlet 690-950, *Civilian Personnel Management*, documents the career development plans. The Civilian Personnel Management Directorate of the U.S. Army Total Personnel Command administers ACTEDS along with all other centralized civilian personnel functions.

Army leaders characterize ACTEDS as a “program for sequential and progressive development for key civilians from intern to Senior Executive Service, similar to the system for military officers.”² A leadership development program that parallels the officer system has been established. Certain leadership and managerial

²Briefing by the Civilian Personnel Management Directorate, U.S. Army Total Personnel Center, July 1993.

courses are mandatory for selected positions. For example, all interns in grades GS-5 through GS-9 must complete the Intern Leadership Development Course. The Supervisor Development Course is required for supervisors of any grade. Other courses (Organizational Leadership for Executives for second-level supervisors and Senior Service College for grades GS-14 and GS-15) are recommended. The education program is designed to help build the knowledge, skills, and attributes that the Army has identified as key competencies for successful managers.

Leadership development courses are financed by a central Army fund.³ The funds are applied to the cost of training and the salary of the civilian employee while in school.

The Army Secretariat also conducts selection boards for the most competitive centrally funded programs (Senior Service Schools and Fellowships, university education, and Training with Industry).⁴ However, no automatic consideration is given for educational opportunities. Civilian employees must initiate action by applying for the school or course.

In order to help civilians manage their careers, the Army has contracted with a private firm to develop and maintain the Training Resources Access Information Network (TRAIN). The system is available to Department of the Army activities through personal computers. Course catalogs, ACTEDS plans, and employment information are presented by TRAIN.

A professional development system similar to the Air Force's more established version is evolving in the Army. However, the Army does not enjoy the staff support or the oversight from panels and policy councils that exist in the Air Force. The Army also does not have career-broadening positions, central PCS funds, or relocation services to help encourage mobility that may be necessary to achieve total professional development.

Navy Civilian Leadership Development Continuum

The Department of the Navy's civilian professional development program is less centralized than the other Departments' programs. The Office of Civilian Personnel Management in the Office of the Secretary of the Navy is responsible for civilian leadership development for the Navy and the Marine Corps. A Secretary of the Navy Instruction, Department of the Navy's Civilian Leadership Development Continuum Program, has recently been published to address that critical issue.

³A command or agency can supplement the central fund by using its own training moneys for leadership development.

⁴Training with Industry is a cooperative program between the Army and private industry. Army officers and civilians work in middle management positions at private firms for 10 months. They have the responsibilities of regular employees but receive their normal salary from the Army.

The instruction describes the Department of the Navy's Civilian Leadership Development Continuum Program.

The Civilian Leadership Development Continuum provides guidelines that serve as a framework for improving the leadership skills and competencies of all civilian managers. It consists of a set of competencies and requirements for naval activities and Marine Corps commands. The continuum applies to all civilian employees in grades GS-9 through GS-15.

The foundation for Department of the Navy's civilian leadership is mentoring, training, and developmental assignments. There are several general requirements. Each participant must have an individual leadership development plan and be guided by a mentor. Leadership development potential is to be identified as part of the appraisal process and in selection for supervisory and managerial positions. Decisions on training and education are to consider the competencies that need to be developed and the potential of the individual employee.

The program is managed in a decentralized manner. Central funds are not provided. Each activity and command is responsible for funding and developing programs, dedicating staff, disseminating information, and implementing actions to achieve the goals of the framework. Activities and commands may also form partnerships to maximize civilian leadership development opportunities.

A Civilian Leadership Board was chartered to establish and revise requirements and guidelines. The Board also monitors the actions of subordinate activities and commands. Members of the Board include the Assistant Secretary of the Navy (Manpower and Reserve Affairs), who has overall responsibility for civilian leadership development; the Deputy Assistant Secretary of the Navy (Civilian Personnel Policy/Equal Employment Opportunity), who provides principal staff support; the Director, Office of Civilian Personnel Management, who is responsible for guidance; and the Associate Director for Policies and Programs, who serves as a technical advisor.

Air Force Civilian Career Management

The Air Force's Civilian Career Management Program is the most centralized within DoD. It is administered by the Career Management Division of the Air Force Civilian Personnel Management Center.

Thirteen career program staffs administer 19 different career fields. The career program staffs, often called "Palace Teams" are comprised of experts in the various functional areas and personnel specialists.

Palace Teams help Air Force civilian employees follow career paths that are defined for each career program. A career path is a recommended sequence of ap-

pointments, training experiences, and educational opportunities that lead to qualification for appointments to higher grade positions.

CAREER REGISTRATION

The Air Force encourages its civilian employees to seek appointments in a wide range of commands and geographic locations. The Career Registration Program supports that goal.

After entry at the GS-5 to GS-7 level, civilians devote the early phase of their career to developing technical and functional expertise. When eligibility requirements (an appropriate skill code for a particular career field and the minimum grade—typically GS-10 through GS-12) are satisfied, an individual may register for the career programs by submitting an Air Force Form 2675. Each civilian employee may register for up to six career programs at one time.

By registering, civilian employees are automatically considered for future appointment to career program positions. For each career program, an individual indicates geographic areas of preference and the lowest acceptable grade for appointment. Local civilian personnel offices validate employees' qualifications upon registration.

Certain positions are designated as career program positions. As those positions are vacated, qualified individuals who have listed the positions in their geographical preference areas and who are at or above the minimum acceptable grade level are notified. Sanctions are in place to discourage career program registrants from abusing the preference system.⁵ About 63,500 civilian employees are registered in Air Force career programs. About 23,300 positions are designated as career program positions.

The act of registering broadens appointment opportunity and also gives the civilian employee the option of following the Career Executive Force Track or pursuing the Career General Force Track. The Executive Track includes planned managerial development, while the General Force Track emphasizes continued technical development. There are also opportunities to move between the two tracks as personal and Air Force needs dictate.

CAREER PROGRAM PANELS AND POLICY COUNCILS

The efforts of the Palace Teams are coordinated by panels and policy councils. Panels and policy councils consist of senior representatives (both military and civilian) from functional areas. Panels and policy councils are established for career programs and groups of related career programs.

⁵Registrants who do not apply for positions that meet the geographical preference and minimum grade conditions are not considered for another appointment for 6 months. Registrants who do not accept an appointment after applying are not considered for 1 year.

Among the most important functions of the panels and policy councils are assessing how well career programs are meeting Air Force objectives, determining methods for measuring executive and managerial competencies, and defining procedures for educational selection boards.⁶

Panels and policy councils also help support the special features of the Air Force career management program.

SPECIAL FEATURES

The Air Force views senior civilian employees (GS-15 and above) as "corporate assets." That view, unique among the Services, has resulted in special features in the personnel management system.

Approximately 133 career-broadening positions are administered by career policy councils. Career-broadening positions, released by functional communities to central control, are designed to provide unique development experiences. The positions are filled through a central nomination and selection system. Tours in career-broadening positions offer one-time, 2- to 4-year assignments. Individual civilian employees must sign a mobility agreement to be considered for a broadening assignment. Career-broadening assignments often are used following a long-term, full-time educational experience.

The Air Force believes that civilian employees should expect to be mobile. Mobility is a recognition of, and tribute to, a person's capability and potential. There is a positive correlation between mobility and advancement. Mobility also serves as a tool that simultaneously enhances organizational effectiveness and professional development. In recent years, more than 54 percent of appointments to higher grade positions have resulted in permanent change of station (PCS) moves.

To help support increased mobility, the Air Force funds civilian PCS moves through a central account. Over the past 6 years, central funding of civilian PCS moves has averaged over \$19 million annually.

A contract with one of the five largest national relocation companies also supports mobility for Air Force civilians. The contract includes guaranteed home sales, marketing assistance, and destination services. Relocation services are normally used for centrally funded PCS moves for employees in grades GS-12 and above.

⁶Many Air Force career programs use "whole person scores." The scores are measures of managerial potential and are considered by selection boards for schools and other development opportunities.

Programs in the Office of the Secretary of Defense

The Deputy Assistant Secretary for Civilian Personnel Policy in the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness) is formulating a proposal for unifying civilian professional development within DoD. The proposal is being developed and reviewed.

Issues associated with leadership and managerial competencies are the basis of the proposal. It calls for common standards for professional development, defined career ladders, links between education and career milestones, and links between training and organizational needs.

FEATURES OF CIVILIAN MANPOWER AND PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Civilian manpower and personnel management systems do not support continuing professional development as well as the systems for military officers. We summarize the significant reasons for the difference in the following subsections.

The Merit System and Decentralized Management

Civilians are not "commissioned" like military officers. They hold rank or grade only by virtue of the position they occupy. Under the merit system, civilians cannot be hired or promoted unless a vacancy exists.

Even when a vacancy does exist, the individual employee must be aware of it, apply for it, and be competitively selected.⁷ No headquarters-level staff member is charged with matching component requirements with the career needs of the civilian employee. Authority for defining the grade and qualifications for the job and making the hiring decision rests with the local supervisor. The decision to seek a position rests with the individual.

The result of the merit system is that, unlike military officers, civilians are not subject to periodic review as a member of a year group. They are not automatically scheduled for appropriate training and educational opportunities early in their careers. Later in their careers, civilians are not considered for more senior schools at a predetermined time. The review for school attendance is also not associated with promotion or other important career milestones, as is the case with military officers.

⁷Civilians can be appointed to a different position of the same grade without the position being "competed."

Voluntary Mobility

Military officers are expected to change duty positions (and usually geographic location) on a regular basis. That requirement for periodic change of duty is intended to simultaneously satisfy Service operational needs and to support individual professional development. As the needs of the military are met, officers progress through a sequence of assignments that offer increasing responsibility and authority. The Military Services have committed to large staffs and extensive resources to manage that process.

Civilians below the Senior Executive Service level are subject to mandatory mobility only if they agree as a condition for entry into a development program or career field. This means that regular rotation of jobs as part of a scheduled career development program is less likely. Civilians have less opportunity to gain assignment experience because there is a lower probability of an appropriate position being available.

Individuals or Overstrength Account

One result of the military's extensive professional development program is that, at any one time, people are in formal school and training and are not available to staff positions in organizations. The Military Services have recognized this "cost" of professional development and established and budgeted for an Individuals account. There are no comparable accounts for civilians.⁸

The lack of an Individuals account, combined with the fact that typically there is no post-education utilization plan, places an extra burden on both the individual and the parent organization when a civilian employee takes part in a long-term, full-time professional development program.

The individual civilian employee leaves the organization with some unsettling uncertainties. How will an extended absence be treated? Will there be a temporary replacement? Will the position be eliminated as part of DoD force reductions? If the position is eliminated, what kind of job will be available? Will some or all the responsibilities be permanently taken away because of operational necessity? How will the organization change during the absence, and what will the role be upon return?

A supervisor must weigh the benefits of professional development against the cost of temporarily losing a staff member. Most often the salary of the employee is still charged to the supervisor. The organization will have to function with a reduced

⁸The Air Force reserves some 1,100 positions for civilian personnel in professional development programs. Those positions are charged to the Air Force Civilian Personnel Management Center, however, and are not a true Individuals account.

staff or incur an additional salary to hire a replacement. The supervisor may wonder if the employee will ever return.

Chapter 4

Comparison of Military and Civilian Professional Development Programs

PURPOSE OF MANPOWER AND PERSONNEL SYSTEMS

Together, the manpower and personnel systems for military officers form an officer management system. That management system provides opportunities for individuals to advance to the highest possible grade within the limits of their abilities and the size constraints of the Service. There are scheduled “career events” (e.g., promotions, formal schools, and command opportunities) for which officers are automatically considered. Officers are expected to perform to the utmost of their abilities as they compete with their peers for the career opportunities.

Senator Nunn offered an excellent description of the dual purposes of the military officer management system. He noted that “[a]n acceptable officer management system should attract qualified, dedicated officers to military careers. It should also, through its promotion policies, provide enough, and only enough, officers to meet mission-based requirements in each of the officer grades.”¹

By contrast, the manpower and personnel mechanisms used for civilians focus more on meeting a single goal—filling authorized, budgeted spaces. Although well-defined career paths are established for many career fields, there are no scheduled career events (except for intern programs). Civilian employees are not automatically considered for promotions and professional development opportunities. Promotions occur only upon appointment to a higher grade position. Professional development is accomplished either because it is mandatory (courses required for supervisory positions, for example) or because an individual employee’s desires and availability conveniently coincide with the needs of the organization.

In this chapter, we describe the results of the two distinct management systems and philosophies. We show the number of participants in the various types of continuing professional development programs along with the resources expended and the personnel staffs dedicated to support those programs.

¹ Senator Sam Nunn, *Congressional Record*, 10 August 1976, p. 26,643.

POPULATION OF MILITARY OFFICERS AND CIVILIANS

To establish a meaningful basis for comparing professional development opportunities for military officers with continuing professional development programs for civilians, we selected subsets of the total officer and civilian populations.

Not all civilian grades involve duties and responsibilities that are comparable to those expected of military officers. Civilians in the lowest grades do not exercise supervisory or managerial authority. Even some of the more senior civilian employees with supervisory responsibility do not have the potential for senior positions and do not need continuing professional development. Similarly, the most junior officers are not eligible for the military equivalent of continuing professional development, "professional military education."

For officers, we considered grades O-3 through O-6. Military officers complete their specialty training as O-3s and begin to attend career schools and undertake programs leading to advanced civilian degrees as part of professional military education (PME). That professional development continues during the O-4 through O-6 "field grade" years. We do not address development above the grade of O-6, since those General/Flag Officers have special management programs.

We consider the population of civilians in grades GS-12 through GS-15. Although some career programs begin as early as grade GS-9, individual employees below GS-12 typically are still completing technical and managerial training and education that is not properly classified as continuing professional development. Civilians in Senior Executive Service positions are excluded from the analysis because, like general/flag military officers, they are managed separately.

Table 4-1 contains the latest budgeted numbers, in thousands, of military personnel and civilians, for each Service and the Defense Agencies for FY96. The blank entry in the "military officers" column for number of military personnel in Defense Agencies reflects the convention of accounting for those individuals in the parent Service even though the assignment is with an outside agency.

Table 4-1. Military Officers in Grades O-3 through O-6 and DoD Civilian Employees in Grades GS-12 through GS-15 (thousands of officers and civilians)

| Organization | Military officers | Civilian employees |
|------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Army | 51.9 | 66.2 |
| Navy | 44.8 | 60.8 |
| Air Force | 65.9 | 37.9 |
| Marine Corps | 10.9 | 1.9 |
| Defense Agencies | | 33.5 |
| Total | 173.5 | 200.3 |

Source: LMI Forces, Readiness, and Manpower Information System as of 30 September 1994.

OFFICER COMMISSIONING AND CIVILIAN INTERN PROGRAMS

Officer Commissioning Programs

Military officers are managed in a “closed” system. Except for increasingly rare instances of “inter-Service transfer” or “direct commissioning,” officers start their careers with commissioning. The act of commissioning represents acceptance into a management development program. If the officers are competitive with their peers, they are promoted on a schedule that is controlled by the Service headquarters.² The promotion schedule is managed to meet individual professional development needs and the manpower requirements of the Service. There is virtually no lateral entry into the systems for military officers.

The number of officers commissioned each year is based on the need for officers in the projected force as compared to the projected future inventory of officers. Planners formulate accession programs that fill the gross requirements for officers for any given year and provide a manageable flow of new officers that avoids severe shortages and overages, by grade, in the future. All the Services use a variety of sources of new officers—Service Academies, Reserve Officer Training Courses (ROTC), Officer Candidate Schools (OCS), Off-Campus Commissioning Programs, Other Enlisted Commissioning Programs, and Health Professions Acquisition Programs.

The programs have different characteristics and different purposes. The Service Academies and ROTC programs provide a stable input of officers, but require

²Officers in the professional and specialized fields such as medical doctors, attorneys, and members of the clergy enter at grades higher than O-1.

long lead-times before changes in output can be made. Officer candidate Programs, on the other hand, can be adjusted quickly to respond to changing requirements for officers. The Services' exploitation of the differences in planning and executing their officer procurement programs is an example of how the manpower systems interact with personnel management systems.

The various accession sources generate a pool of newly commissioned officers at grade O-1. All the officers must, by statute, attend initial qualification training before they can be deployed. The Military Services do not classify the accession programs and the associated initial training as part of professional military education programs. However, the programs do mark the starting point of career paths that, for some individuals, lead to the senior grades and participation in continuing professional development. The extensive accession and initial training programs (over 250 million dollars are programmed for Active Force initial training in FY96) indicate the importance of professional development in the careers of military officers.

In Table 4-2, we show the numbers of Active Component officers (virtually all in grade O-1) that completed initial training in FY95 and the number that are programmed for FY96 and FY97.³

Table 4-2. Active Force Officers Attending Initial Training

| Year | Army | Navy | Marine Corps | Air Force | Total |
|------|-------|-------|--------------|-----------|--------|
| FY95 | 7,230 | 4,005 | 2,710 | 4,535 | 18,480 |
| FY96 | 7,168 | 4,080 | 2,721 | 4,539 | 18,508 |
| FY97 | 7,203 | 4,080 | 2,700 | 4,462 | 18,445 |

Source: *Military Manpower Training Report*—FY96, May 1995.

Civilian Intern Programs

In Table 4-3 we show, for FY95, the number of individuals in intern programs that are centrally managed by military department headquarters. The funding, in millions of dollars, for that number of interns is also included. Table 4-3 also contains the programmed number of interns and level of funding for fiscal years 1996 and 1997 for the Department of the Army and the Department of the Navy. Programmed data for FY96 and FY97 in the Department of the Air Force are still being developed.

³ Depending on commissioning source and Service needs, the officers are designated for duty with the Active Force or the Reserve Component Force.

Table 4-3. Number of Interns and Funding (millions of dollars) for Intern Programs Managed by Military Department Headquarters, FY95 (actual) and FY96 and FY97 (programmed)

| Year | Army | | Navy | | Air Force | |
|------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| | Interns | Funding (\$) | Interns | Funding (\$) | Interns | Funding (\$) |
| FY95 | 1,070 | 42.2 | 409 | 16.3 | 890 | 42.3 |
| FY96 | 1,100 | 42.2 | 359 | 15.6 | — | — |
| FY97 | 1,000 | 42.0 | 337 | 15.5 | — | — |

Source: Army—Office of the Assistant Secretary of the Army (Manpower and Reserve Affairs); Navy—Acquisition Career Management Office and Financial Management Career Center; Air Force—Office of Director of Civilian Personnel Management

Department of the Army and Department of the Air Force data include intern programs for all career fields. Department of the Navy data represent only acquisition and financial management career fields. All the Military Departments have intern programs conducted at the command and activity levels. Data for those programs below the military department level are not included in Table 4-3.

Compared to accession programs and the related initial training programs offered to military officers, civilian intern programs are modest. In FY95, more than 18,000 officers attended initial training. Those individuals constitute a significant pool from which future leaders can be developed. In the same year, the total number of interns for all programs managed by Military Departments was only about 2,400 individuals (approximately 13 percent of the military officer total).

Two primary reasons explain the disparity in size and funding between military officer accession programs and civilian intern programs. The first is available moneys and priority. The intern program has lower priority than accession and initial training programs for officers. Its size is determined largely by how much funding remains after higher priority programs are budgeted. The second reason for the modest size of the intern program is that it is not the only way to enter the civilian personnel system. Unlike the environment for military officers, the civilian system is “open.” Individuals may be appointed to any position in any grade for which they are qualified.

A limited size is but one of the obstacles that civilian personnel managers face in operating the intern program. Intern programs can be thought of as “mini” accession systems. Individuals are selected because of special qualifications and potential for outstanding service. But since entering the intern program constitutes an appointment in the civilian merit system, the selection must be open to competition according to OPM rules. Competition rules include granting preference for a number of reasons (e.g., being displaced from a prior government appointment, military veteran status). Those preference rules can result in another person winning the appointment. To overcome the preference rules, the Services can take

advantage of the "Outstanding Scholar Program." That program enables the appointments of exceptional college students (a grade point average of at least 3.5 out of 4.0 in an appropriate course of study) without opening the appointment to competition. Using the Outstanding Scholar Program restricts the pool of candidates.

Following appointment to an intern position, personnel managers are challenged to provide a meaningful sequence of assignments. Most intern programs are designed to span two to three years and include more than one assignment. Upon entry, an intern is typically appointed to a position of GS-7 to GS-9 and can expect to advance to grade GS-11 or GS-12 by the end of the program. Advancement depends on being appointed to positions of higher grade. This advancement is not supported by a regular rotation of jobs in the remainder of the civilian workforce, however. Finding a suitable position for an intern due to rotate is often difficult, especially when DoD is reducing its workforce.

The final concern with intern programs is that they end abruptly. Successfully completing the scheduled series of appointments brings an intern to a GS-11 or GS-12 position. There is no centrally controlled plan for continued development. Interns become their own career manager subject to OPM rules and the availability of positions.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Officer Professional Military Education

Career paths for military officers feature many educational and training opportunities. In addition to courses for newly commissioned officers, the Military Services offer skill progression training, specialized skill training, and professional military education. Professional military education (PME) for military officers is comparable to continuing professional development for civilians.

Professional military education is the systematic and comprehensive process of developing the skills, knowledge, and military judgment required for the increasingly complex responsibilities associated with higher grades. It is concerned with broad developmental goals in subjects such as leadership, management, and military science, and it is conducted at both military and civilian institutions. Professional military education is acquired through self-study, professional reading, symposia, formal schools, and experience gained in duty assignments.

Each of the Services maintains a "Command and Staff College" as an intermediate Service school. Additionally, the Navy is the executive agent for the Armed Forces Staff College, a joint institution for students from all Services sponsored by the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The approach and curriculum differ in each school.

However, the courses at all the schools are designed to prepare officers for command and staff duties in all echelons of their parent Service and in joint or allied commands. A few officers from each Service attend one of the Command and Staff Colleges of another Service or an allied nation. Attendance at intermediate Service schools is based on selection by a board. There are also correspondence and "off site" seminar versions of the intermediate course for officers who are not selected for residence attendance.

A senior Service school or "War College" is also available within each Service. In addition, the National Defense University, consisting of the National War College and the Industrial College of the Armed Forces, provides courses for officers from all Services. The common purpose of those senior Service schools is to prepare students for senior command and staff positions at the highest levels in the national security establishment and in the allied command structure. Attendance is highly selective and students include the most promising officers in grades O-5 and O-6.

Some of the education required of military officers can be attained only through graduate education. Under a program established by Section 2004 of Title 10 United States Code, military officers pursue graduate education on a fully funded, full time basis. A minimum Service payback obligation of three years for the first year of schooling and one year for each year after the first is required of all officers entering the program. Officer graduate students attend a civilian college or university, or one of the two Service institutions: the Naval Postgraduate School or the Air Force Institute of Technology.

In addition to the PME opportunities already discussed, a variety of programs are tailored to meet specialized needs of the individual and the Service. Those programs include advanced degree completion on a full-time basis, "short courses" seminars, Training with Industry (TWI) in the Army, and Education with Industry (EWI) in the Air Force. That training is provided mostly by private organizations. Individuals are not selected for a program unless the education will enhance their professional development and be useful to the military department.

All Services conduct career professional courses for officers with some operational experience. In the Army and Navy, those courses (i.e., Officer Advanced Courses and Surface Warfare Officer's Course, respectively) are oriented toward specific skills and are not classified as PME. The Marine Corps and Air Force courses offered at the same level (i.e., Amphibious Warfare School and Squadron Officer School, respectively) are broader in scope and are considered, by the Services, to be part of PME. About 300 Marine Corps officers attend the Amphibious Warfare School each year. The comparable figure for Air Force officers in the Squadron Officer's School is 3,000. Because of the relatively junior grade and experience of the students attending the Amphibious Warfare School and the Squadron Officer School, we do not consider them in our analysis.

Civilian Continuing Professional Development

Continuing professional development programs for civilians are a combination of managerial, leadership, and professional development training offered by the military PME system and civilian organizations.

Limited opportunities are available for civilians to attend traditional military institutions. Civilians attending military intermediate and senior schools follow the same curriculum as their officer counterparts. However, below the Senior Service School level, there is great diversity among the departments in how military schools are used for civilian education. For example, each year the Air Force sends over 100 civilian students to its Squadron Officer School because the management-related material presented there is considered important and appropriate. The Army and Navy do not enroll civilians in their comparable courses because the instruction offered is not viewed as being useful. The Army usually does not enroll civilians in the Intermediate School, while the Navy and Air Force do.

Full-time graduate education programs at state and private colleges and universities are virtually the same for civilians as for military officers. The opportunities are much more limited however.

The Military Services also schedule their civilians to take advantage of formal workshops and short courses such as OPM's management seminars. Those courses are geared toward general management and leadership skills.

Scope of Military and Civilian Professional Development Programs

We collected FY95 attendance data for officers in PME schools and for civilians in managerial, leadership, and professional development training. Those data are shown in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4. Number of Officers Attending Professional Military Education and Number of Civilians Attending Professional Development Programs, FY95

| School | Army | | Navy | | Air Force | |
|-------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| | Military | Civilian | Military | Civilian | Military | Civilian |
| Squadron Officer School | — | — | — | 125 | — | — |
| Intermediate School | 935 | — | 397 | 12 | 528 | 16 |
| Senior School | 419 | 17 | 290 | 10 | 292 | 37 |
| Civilian Graduate School | 1,011 | 32 | 1,450 | 10 | 717 | 36 |
| Civilian Other/ Management | 364 | 723 | 289 | 79 | 515 | 613 |

Sources: *Military Manpower Training Report, FY 1996*, for military officer data, civilian personnel management directorates for Army and Air Force civilian data. *OPM Human Resource Development Report* for Navy civilian data.

The Navy figures are the sum of the number of Navy and Marine Corps officers attending the schools. No numbers are shown for Air Force officers attending Squadron Officer School (about 3,000 attend each year) because we do not classify that school as part of Air Force PME. We do show figures for Air Force civilians in Squadron Officer School because the school does constitute professional development for civilians. The “Civilian other/management” entries include short courses, seminars, TWI, and EWI for military officers and civilians; the Federal Executive Institute, the OPM Management Development Center Program; and the Executive Leadership Program for civilians. Tuition assistance is not included for officers or civilians.

The funding data used to support the officer PME and civilian professional development for FY95 are shown in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5. Funding (in millions of dollars) for Officer Professional Military Education and Civilian Professional Development for FY95

| Funding | Army | Navy | Air Force |
|------------------|-------|-------|-----------|
| Military funding | 213.3 | 207.3 | 203.2 |
| Civilian funding | 76.4 | 56.2 | 71.1 |

Sources: *Military Manpower Training Report, FY 1996*, and military department civilian personnel directorates.

The difference in the scope of PME programs for military officers compared to professional development programs for civilians is striking. In FY95, about 5 percent of the population of Army and Navy officers in the grades O-3 through O-6 were participating in some form of PME. In the same year, just over 1 percent of

Army civilians in grades GS-12 through GS-15 were taking part in continuing professional development. In the Navy, less than 1 percent of the civilians in those grades were engaged in professional development in FY95. The Air Force figures for FY95 were closer. About 3 percent of Air Force officers in grades O-3 through O-6 were taking part in PME, while 2 percent of GS-12 through GS-15 civilians were in professional development programs.

The disparity in professional development opportunity between military officers and civilians is also reflected by funding figures. In the Army and Air Force, in FY95, PME was funded at almost three times the level of civilian professional development. In the Navy, PME funding was almost four times the civilian professional development level.

STAFF SUPPORT FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Managing the careers of military officers is an involved process. In order to accomplish the challenging task of supporting the career needs of the individual officer while simultaneously meeting manpower requirements, large staffs are dedicated to the effort. We examined the organizations devoted to officer professional development in each of the Services in order to estimate the level of staff support. Our estimate is inexact because of the diverse way in which each of the Services approaches the management task. For example, in the Air Force, some directorates are responsible for professional development actions relating to both officer and enlisted personnel. It is not possible, in all cases, to allocate staff members exclusively to officer or enlisted support. The Army clearly divides officer and enlisted management into two directorates. However, professional development responsibilities often overlap across divisions within the directorates. Our estimate considers only staffs at the Service headquarters level. Staff assets are devoted to professional development in subordinate commands and activities that we have not accounted for.

Table 4-6 contains our estimate of the size of the staffs devoted to officer professional development at the Service headquarters level. We counted all staff personnel authorized to the Officer Personnel Management Directorate in the U.S. Army Total Personnel Command. For the Navy, we included the billets for the Manpower Resources Branch of the Bureau of Navy Personnel. The Air Force number is an estimate of the staff allocated to officer personnel management from the Air Force Personnel Center and the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel. The Marine Corps number represents the staff dedicated to officer management in the Assistant Deputy Chief of Staff for Manpower and Reserve Affairs/Personnel Management. Entries in the "Size of staff" column include staff members involved in managing all officers of that Service. It is not possible to identify the size of staff dedicated to managing officers in grades O-3 through O-6 only, because the management structures are not organized that way.

Table 4-6. Number of Authorizations in Headquarters-Level Staffs Devoted to Officer Professional Development

| Service | Size of staff |
|--------------|---------------|
| Army | 400 |
| Navy | 256 |
| Air Force | 205 |
| Marine Corps | 60 |

Staffs devoted to managing civilian professional development are significantly smaller than those for military officers. We reviewed the organization of the Civilian Personnel Management Directorate of the U.S. Army Total Personnel Command, the Career Programs Branch of the Air Force Civilian Personnel Center, and the Office of Civilian Personnel Management in the Department of the Navy Secretariat. The size of the staffs are shown in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7. Number of Authorizations in Department-Level Staffs Devoted to Civilian Professional Development

| Department | Size of staff |
|------------|---------------|
| Army | 54 |
| Navy | 19 |
| Air Force | 98 |

It is important to note that the size of staff numbers represent only department-level support. As we noted earlier, civilian personnel management is much more decentralized than officer management. Significant resources are devoted to the appointment and general development process at the command and activity levels.

“INDIVIDUALS” ACCOUNT FOR MILITARY OFFICERS

The existence of an “Individuals” or “overstrength” account is critical to officer professional development. Because of the ability to account for people in “non-unit” activities, the Military Services can send officers to full-time, long-term training and education programs, assign graduates to appropriate jobs upon completion of school, and conduct a system of regular rotation of positions.

The portion allotted to the total Individuals account for each of the Military Services, and the subaccounts for transients, holdees, and trainees and students for FY95 are shown in Table 4-8. For example, in FY95, the total Army officer

strength was 82,800. The total Individuals account for that year was 12,800 thousand, made up of 1,000 thousand transients, 6,000 holdees, and 11,200 trainees and students.

Table 4-8. Officer Strength, Total Individuals Account, and Subaccounts for FY95 (thousands)

| | Army | Navy | Air Force | Marine Corps |
|---------------------------|------|------|-----------|--------------|
| Total Officer Strength | 82.2 | 60.0 | 77.7 | 17.9 |
| Total Individuals Account | 12.8 | 9.5 | 7.6 | 3.2 |
| Transients | 1.0 | 3.0 | 1.1 | 0.5 |
| Holdees | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Trainees and Students | 1.2 | 0.4 | 6.5 | 0.7 |

In the Army, the Individuals account constitutes 12 to 13.5 percent of the total officer strength. Comparable figures for the Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps are 10 to 12 percent, 7 to 10 percent, and 17 to 18 percent, respectively.

SUMMARY

The impact of personnel management systems on continuing professional development is not surprising. As a group, military officers enjoy many more opportunities, more funding, and more staff support than their civilian counterparts.

To obtain a basic estimate of the difference in emphasis on professional development between military officers and DoD civilians, we calculated the ratio of total dollars spent on PME for officers to the number of officers in grades O-3 through O-6. We also determined the ratio of total dollars devoted to civilian continuing professional development to the number of employees in grades GS-12 through GS-15. The ratios are in units of dollars devoted to professional development per individual, and they are significantly different for military officers than for civilians. For example, in FY95, the Army devoted about \$4,300 to professional development for each officer in grades O-3 through O-6. The comparable ratio for civilians in grades GS-12 through GS-15 is about \$1,200 per individual. In the Department of the Navy, for FY95, a similar ratio exists. About four times as many dollars per individual are devoted to professional development for officers as allocated to civilians. The Air Force, the exception, only devoted twice as many dollars per individual to professional development for officers than for civilians.

Staff support for professional development cannot be compared meaningfully because the staffs professionally manage military officers and civilians of *all* grades, not only those of interest in the study. However, all indications are that the same vast difference in staff support exists between military officers and civilians.

Vast disparities between the opportunity for, funding of, and staff support for professional development between military officers and DoD civilians should not be viewed as an indictment of civilian manpower and personnel management. Rather the disparity reflects the philosophy of military officer development. The military officer is expected to be primarily a leader capable of functioning in a wide variety of situations and environments.

Provisions of DAWIA make it necessary to review the role of civilian leaders in the DoD acquisition system. Concerns with continuing professional development of acquisition professionals beyond leadership roles also must be addressed.

In the next chapter we introduce initial concepts for alternative approaches to modifying existing civilian management systems in order to better support continuing professional development for civilian acquisition professionals. We also outline the manpower and personnel implications associated with the alternatives.

Chapter 5

Issues for Continuing Professional Development

GENERAL

A management system that is more conducive to professional development will better prepare civilians to assume leadership and senior technical positions in the acquisition workforce. In this chapter, we discuss the issues related to changing DoD civilian acquisition workforce management to improve the environment for continuing professional development.

We first discuss the need for a model, or construct, to integrate the components that are fundamental to imbuing civilian acquisition professionals with managerial, leadership, and advanced technical attributes beyond the Level III certification standards. Next, we review three of the features of the manpower and personnel systems used to manage military officers. Those features are essential elements of a program of continuing professional development. We conclude by identifying implications of adopting military manpower and personnel systems to meet the needs of the civilian acquisition workforce.

A MODEL FOR CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

A model for continuing professional development of the acquisition workforce should provide answers to the questions: Who should be developed? What attributes are desired? When in a career should the program begin? Where and how should the program be offered? Why should individuals and organizations participate? We respond to those questions by discussing these topics: eligible population, attributes, content of the program, program options, and rewards and benefits of the program.

Eligible Population

Careful thought must be given to determine how many members of the acquisition workforce need continuing professional development. It is not feasible to prepare over 115,000 workforce members to fill leadership or advanced technical jobs. We believe the Acquisition Corps is the logical population within the total acquisition workforce to consider for continuing professional development.

The Acquisition Corps is a subset of DoD's acquisition workforce. There is one Acquisition Corps for each military department and one for the other DoD com-

ponents (often called the “fourth estate”). The Acquisition Corps from the Military Departments and the “fourth estate” total about 17,700 members. That total includes approximately 12,300 civilians and 5,400 military officers. Since military manpower and personnel systems readily support professional development, the focus for changing management programs is on the 12,300 civilians.

The DAWIA established eligibility requirements for membership in the Acquisition Corps. For civilians, individuals must be serving in a position graded GS-13 or higher.¹ They must also meet the following experience, education, and certification standards:²

- ◆ Four years acquisition experience
- ◆ A baccalaureate degree, certification by an Acquisition Career Program Board, or 10 years of acquisition experience as of 1 October 1991
- ◆ At least 24 semester credit hours from among accounting, business finance, law, contracts, purchasing, economics, industrial management, marketing, quantitative methods, organization and management; or at least 24 semester credit hours in a career field and 12 semester hours or equivalent training in the above disciplines; *or* pass an equivalency exam
- ◆ Completion of mandatory training in any acquisition career field at Level II or Level III, or certification at Level II or Level III.

Individuals who satisfy the Acquisition Corps standards are well suited to begin programs of continuing professional development. Making Acquisition Corps membership a prerequisite for further, more advanced education and experiences would also encourage acquisition workforce members to seek more complete development.

Attributes

A well-structured development program must include a clear definition of the knowledge, skills, and attributes desired in the participants. Leadership and managerial topics should be emphasized in the continuing professional development of acquisition professionals since typically there is an increase in those types of responsibilities in many GS-13, GS-14, and GS-15 positions. However, there are some GS-14 and GS-15 positions that require more advanced and broader perspectives on the use and employment of technology and less emphasis on management. Those types of attributes, that are particular to acquisition, must be included in the development plan.

¹Military officers must be serving in a position graded O-4 and above.

²The same experience, education, and training requirements apply to officers.

The Leadership Excellence Inventory used by OPM and the Profiler, an attribute inventory created by Personnel Decisions, Inc., are starting points for defining the desired knowledge, skills, attributes. Those instruments may need to be modified to capture all the qualities necessary for competence in acquisition.

Content of the Program

Content of the program addresses the combination and sequence of formal education, training, and experience needed to develop the leadership attributes.

The system now used in each of the acquisition career fields features clear definitions of the education, training, and experience required for certification at Levels I, II, and III. The program for continuing professional development can logically follow the same system with appropriate modifications in subject matter.

It also may be possible to incorporate more short-term seminars and workshops in the continuing professional development program. The short-term sessions could focus on specific facets of management and leadership and be timed to coincide with appointments to new positions. Short-term offerings can also be used to introduce new technologies to senior acquisition professionals.

Program Options

Acquisition professionals should have more than one option for satisfying the education and training requirements of continuing professional development. Most of the PME courses for military officers have nonresident and correspondence options. Similar alternatives should be made available to full-time residence attendance to develop the appropriate number of civilian acquisition professionals.

Provisions for meeting education and training requirements by virtue of prior experience, or through equivalent credit and qualifying exams may also be appropriate. DoD guide ADS-93-01-GD, *Acquisition Career Management—Mandatory Course Fulfillment Program and Competency Standards*, July 1995, contains a plan that enables acquisition workforce members to satisfy mandatory training requirements on the basis of previous experience, education, and alternative training programs. A similar guide may be needed for continuing professional development.

Rewards and Benefits

There should be some motivation for individual acquisition professionals and DoD acquisition organizations to participate in and support the program of continuing professional development.

Military officers are managed in a culture in which the benefits of PME are obvious. Selection for PME is considered a reward. Upon completion of a formal

course, PME graduates are given preference for assignments. Organizations seek PME graduates as replacements. A similar culture must evolve if continuing professional development is to be effective for civilian acquisition professionals.

IMPLICATIONS OF CHANGING CIVILIAN MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Programs that expand professional development opportunities for civilians are being considered in many DoD components. The Army is conducting studies and staffing actions to modify the professional development system (called "leader development" by the Army) for its civilian acquisition professionals. The Air Force is taking similar action for its entire civilian workforce. The Office of the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Civilian Personnel Policy is staffing actions to form councils and publish directives that set policy and assign responsibility for professional development of civilians. Those efforts have adopted many features of military officer manpower and personnel management system.

If the program for continuing professional development of DoD civilian acquisition professionals is to be effective, the current management system will most likely be modified.

Central Control of Positions and People

All military officers and the positions they occupy are centrally managed. That level of control requires significant staff and resources. A serious consideration is whether the DoD components can afford that commitment of resources to management of civilian personnel, even to management of only the 12,300 civilian members of the Acquisition Corps. Virtually all DoD agencies are scheduled to reduce their civilian structure over the next five years. The Defense Authorization Act for FY96 calls for total acquisition positions to be reduced by 25 percent.

The issue of who exercises authority for control of people and positions also raises questions. In the present system, each military department manages military officers and civilians filling positions within its own component. Military officers in fourth estate jobs are managed by their "parent" Service. Civilians performing jobs in the fourth estate are controlled by the separate agencies, however. Who would manage and control civilians moving into and out of fourth estate jobs (either between fourth estate agencies or between Military Departments and fourth estate agencies)? Such movements could occur because of transition to long-term, full-time education or to developmental assignments. Currently, civilians fend for themselves in such situations. Should OSD assume responsibility for personnel management in these situations, or should transfer rules that delineate responsibility between losing and gaining organizations be established?

Management systems for military officers are based on the “rank-in-person” concept. Officers of the same rank and skill are considered to possess a consistent set of qualifications. If civilians are to be developed through a series of schools and assignments, should they also be granted “rank-in-person” status. Such a convention would simplify the process of making appointments to positions. However, the question arises about how civilians would be awarded the rank. No system or authority now exists for civilians to be promoted or granted rank independent to the positions for which they compete.

An implication related to associating rank with an individual civilian is the current career field designation in the DoD acquisition system. Some acquisition positions require duties and responsibilities that relate to more than one career field. The designation of such positions into only one career field is somewhat artificial and restrictive. It may be more effective to designate those positions according to more general classification scheme so that individuals from more career fields could fill them and professional development of civilian acquisition professionals is more flexible. The Military Services typically designate “branch or skill immaterial” positions in the higher level headquarters staffs. It may be appropriate to employ a similar practice for the higher grade civilian acquisition jobs.

At least four factors are associated with adopting a policy of central control of people and positions for civilian acquisition professionals:

- ◆ resources and staff required,
- ◆ control of individuals moving between Components,
- ◆ rank-in-person management of civilians, and
- ◆ career field or skill immaterial position designation.

Mandatory Mobility

The civilian workforce is not, and should not be, as mobile as its military counterparts. An important function performed by less mobile civilian acquisition professionals is the maintenance of continuity. However, it appears that civilian members of the acquisition workforce participating in continuing professional development will need to be mobile if the program is to be effective.

In conjunction with central control of people and positions, increased mobility will create assignment opportunities for individuals upon completion of long-term, full-time education. Those increased “follow-on” assignment opportunities will relieve the individual from the stress of finding a suitable position. Organizations can expect qualified replacements when valuable staff members depart for school. The concept of mandatory mobility presents some significant questions, however.

The first issue concerns the rotation policy. Most often, military officers move to new jobs on the basis of stabilization policy or tour length for the area of assignment. Overseas areas may be short tour (1 year to 18 months) or long tour (3 years). Most assignments in the United States are for 3 or 4 years. The stabilization policy varies by Service and assignment area depending on operational need and available funds for financing moves. Should civilians rotate jobs on the basis of a regular schedule, or should the moves be linked to the developmental needs of the individual? If a rotation plan based on individual development need is used, how would the plan be coordinated to match an individual's need with organization staffing requirements and what organization would be responsible for the coordination?

Including a rotation policy as part of a program of continuing professional development presents the question of appointment authority. Currently, local supervisors have the appointment authority (or at minimum, a voice in it) for civilians. If supervisors are managing positions subject to rotation, will they retain that authority or will it be transferred to a central agency?

Another question related to rotation of civilians concerns the relationship to formal training and schools. As military officers move through a series of job assignments and schools, they are automatically considered for PME opportunities according to a predetermined schedule. Officers do not apply for PME opportunities. Will civilian acquisition professionals also be automatically considered for appropriate schools or will they continue to apply? At what level and by what process will school selections be made?

Finally, if rotation is an important component of civilian professional development, what compensation should they receive for being mobile. Military officers move at government expense, may be allowed house-hunting trips, may receive a dislocation allowance depending on the type of move, and either receive a housing allowance or reside in quarters provided by the government. Would civilians receive all or some of those same benefits?

The issues related to mandatory rotation for civilians are

- ◆ rotation on a regular schedule or based on professional needs,
- ◆ authority for appointment to new positions,
- ◆ coordination of school selection and rotation, and
- ◆ comprehensive housing and relocation compensation.

Accounting for Non-Unit Personnel

The Individuals account used for military personnel enables officers to move through a series of unit and school assignments without burdening the organizations in the force structure. Some provision is needed to support civilian movement through a series of experiential and school assignments without encumbering valid positions.

It is not clear if it is feasible to institute a category comparable to the military individuals account. An interim measure would be to exclude civilians attending long-term, full-time schools from counting against total strength ceilings. A related action would be to have commands and activities "donate" some of their authorizations to the continuing professional development program. Organizations could retain control of the authorizations, but with the understanding that such positions are to be used for follow-on assignments after schools or other development actions.

FUTURE ANALYSIS

This report is the foundation for continuing the study. In the next study phase we will address the implications of changing current civilian management practices to better support continuing professional development. We will begin to synthesize techniques and procedures used for professional development in the private sector, in other career fields, and in allied nations to finalize alternative approaches and to add details to the concepts. The analysis will focus on these actions:

- ◆ Determine the attributes needed by the DoD Acquisition Corps.
- ◆ Define a model to develop those attributes.
- ◆ Identify the changes in the civilian management system needed to accommodate the model.
- ◆ Determine the critical acquisition positions that require the attributes.
- ◆ Identify measures to motivate individuals and organizations to participate in and support the professional development program.

We expect to use the results of related studies sponsored by the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition and Technology. The personnel demonstration program for the acquisition workforce authorized by Public Law 104-406 will provide an opportunity to test many of the management concepts.

GLOSSARY

| | |
|--------|---|
| ACTEDS | Army Civilian Training and Education System |
| APC | Acquisition Professional Community |
| DAU | Defense Acquisition University |
| DAWIA | Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act |
| DoD | Department of Defense |
| FTE | full-time equivalent |
| MOS | military occupational specialty |
| OMB | Office of Management and Budget |
| OPM | Office of Personnel Management |
| OSD | Office of the Secretary of Defense |
| PCS | permanent change of station |
| PME | professional military education |
| RIF | reduction in force |
| ROTC | Reserve Officer Training Corps |
| TRAIN | Training Resources Access Information Network |

| REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE | | | Form Approved OPM No.0704-0188 | |
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| Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources gathering, and maintaining the data needed, and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs, Office of Management and Budget, Washington, DC 20503. | | | | |
| 1. AGENCY USE ONLY (Leave Blank) | | 2. REPORT DATE Aug 96 | | 3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED Final |
| 4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE The Effect of Manpower and Personnel Systems on Professional Development | | | 5. FUNDING NUMBERS C DASW01-95-C-0019 PE 0902198D | |
| 6. AUTHOR(S) John T. Durgala, Albert H. Schroetell | | | | |
| 7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Logistics Management Institute 2000 Corporate Ridge McLean, VA 22102-7805 | | | 8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER LMI- AQ503MR1 | |
| 9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Director, Acquisition Education, Training & Career Development Deputy Under Secretary of Defense, Acquisition Reform Under Secretary of Defense (Acquisition & Technology) Office of the Secretary of Defense, Pentagon, Washington, D.C. | | | 10. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER | |
| 11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES | | | | |
| 12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT A: Approved for public release; distribution unlimited | | | 12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE | |
| 13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) Two closely related objectives of the Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act are to improve the educational and professional development of the acquisition workforce and to expand opportunities for civilian acquisition professionals to serve in leadership positions. While education and training programs in the technical areas critical to acquisition work are progressing well, the evolving programs for professional development in managerial and leadership skills are not as effective, particularly for civilians. The manpower and personnel systems used to manage civilians do not include essential features of the military system that support management development. Those features are central control of authorized positions and people, mandatory mobility, and a method to account for people who are not available to perform jobs in the force structure. Changing civilian manpower and personnel management to include the essential features would enhance professional development. However, there are significant cultural and management implications to making such a change in an organization. A planned approach to improving the professional development environment for civilian acquisition professionals should address the attributes needed by acquisition professionals, alternative ways to develop those attributes, identification of specific provisions to be changed, and quantification of the number of civilians to be developed as part of the program. | | | | |
| 14. SUBJECT TERMS Acquisition officer, acquisition workforce, Defense Acquisition Workforce Improvement Act, DAWIA, manpower, personnel management, professional development, professional military education | | | 15. NUMBER OF PAGES 66 | |
| | | | 16. PRICE CODE | |
| 17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT Unclassified | 18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE Unclassified | 19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT Unclassified | 20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UL | |

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